

**CONSTRUCTION AND VALIDATION OF A BEHAVIORAL MEASURE OF
ROLE-TAKING**

A Thesis

by

TONY PAUL LOVE

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE

December 2008

Major Subject: Sociology

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ABSTRACT

Construction and Validation of a Behavioral Measure of Role-Taking.

(December 2008)

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This study examines a new method for conceptualizing and measuring role-taking ability. Role-taking is defined in a manner that facilitates further theory building and testing. The task of designing and validating a measure of role-taking that departs from the self-evaluative measures currently used is undertaken and validated with an experimental design. A computer-based survey instrument is created consisting of video and written vignettes designed to test subjects' ability to predict their study partner's behavior. It is found that one type of vignette is more suitable for measuring role-taking accuracy than is the other. Females, regardless of experimental condition, record higher role-taking scores than do their male counterparts. Subjects' self-reported role-taking accuracy is not correlated with their actual role-taking accuracy scores. Because this is the case, it leads to a re-thinking of the meaning of studies that use self-reported ability as the sole measure of role-taking ability. An additional finding is that participants seem to overestimate individual differences. Personality factors measured by the Big Five Inventory were not correlated with role-taking accuracy.

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INTRODUCTION

The ability to put oneself in “another’s shoes” or to see a context from other perspectives is a central process in socialization. Developmental psychologists argue that this process of role-taking is a critical element of maturity (Eisenberg et al, 1987). Given that this is a fundamental process, it is surprising that little recent sociological research addresses the conditions under which people might be more or less likely to role-take.

Exploring the possible causes of variation in role-taking ability is crucial for understanding the dynamics of any type of social interaction. In future research, it is important to examine the ways in which differing power positions affect the role-taking ability of dyads. It is also important to focus on the effect of gender category on role-taking ability when role-taking with a member of the opposite gender. To reach this goal we must first find a suitable definition of role-taking and an instrument that can discern the possible differences in role-taking ability. The current research takes on the task of creating and validating an instrument capable of measuring role-taking ability.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Although the concept of role-taking holds significant importance as a central tenet in social psychological theory and research there is little agreement on how the term should be defined theoretically and little empirical research exploring its nature. This research will highlight the classic literature on the subject, but will ultimately follow the tradition set forth by Biddle (1986), Schwalbe (1988, 1991), Cast (2004) and Cast and Bird (2005).

Role-Taking

Mead (1934) first explained role-taking, or “taking the role of other,” in conjunction with his explanation of the self as an object. For Mead, this is a vital mechanism in the development of the self and is essential for the social process. It is necessary for rational conduct that the individual should take an objective, impersonal attitude toward himself. In other words, that he should become an object to himself. Failure to do so is failure to act intelligently or rationally. In fact Mead’s view of role-taking implies that the organization of society is possible only to the degree in which individual members of that society can perceive the general attitude of all the other individual members of the society (see Lauer and Boardman 1971 for clarification).

In this framework, the individual does not directly view himself as an object, but views himself as an object indirectly from the particular standpoints of others. An individual only becomes an object to himself by anticipating the attitudes of other individuals toward his self within a social environment or context of experience in which

both he and they are involved (Mead 1934). Mead felt that role-taking is necessary for the proper development of the self. Mead as well as most contemporary symbolic interactionists (see Charon 2007 for example) contends that role-taking is an activity that is necessary for continuing the successful operation of any group, organization, or society. However, others (Goffman 1959, Long 1990) remind that role-taking should not always be considered as a tool for the maintenance of relationships. It can also be a tool used for manipulation, control, and punishment.

Role-taking is described in many different ways, and, although a central concept in the social psychology of Mead, there seems to be little agreement about exactly what it is or what it involves. As discussed in previous literature role taking has been described as necessarily involving shared gestures (Schwalbe 1988, Miller 1981) or as understanding and then reconstructing the other's or others' attitudes (Coutu, 1951; Turner, 1956) or as imagining or constructing what others' might do (Keller, 1976; Sherohman, 1977); or as developing others' perspectives (Schantz 1975; Flavell, 1974). Recent reflection on the concept promotes the understanding of role-taking as entering the perspective of an other, or describes role-taking as imagining the world from the perspective of another (Charon 2007). It seems then, that role-taking is to be defined as the act of cognitively entering, or imagining, the perspective in which an other or others views his, her, or their world in order to imagine what they might do. Given the plethora of choices in a definition of role-taking, it is no surprise that Schwalbe and others call for more definitional consistency when considering the concept of role-taking.

Role-Taking Ability

As noted by Schwalbe (1988), while the ability to think in the way another person thinks may be important, role-taking involves being able to predict others' behavior. The role-taking process entails perceiving and interpreting the meanings of gestures and symbols in a social interaction. These interpretations, if accurate, allow an individual to anticipate the behavior of the actor.

It is a seemingly well known fact in prior research that individuals vary in their ability to role-take. The questions then arise:

- (1) How do individuals vary with respect to their abilities to anticipate (others') the other's behavior?
- (2) What are the causes of individual variation in these abilities?
- (3) What are the consequences of such variation?

Concepts and Measurement of Role-Taking Ability

Biddle (1986) points out that the different interpretations of role-taking ability have taken two distinct paths. One links role-taking ability to the sophistication of social thought. For example an individual is a better role taker if he or she presumes that others also hold expectations that map the thoughts and actions of others (Biddle 1986, 84). The other path links role-taking ability to accuracy, or the ability to predict how an other will perceive or respond to some stimulus in a particular situation (Schwalbe 1988). As noted by Biddle (1986) this variation in interpreting role-taking accuracy has led to two traditions of research that are seemingly unaware of one another.

Role-Taking Ability: Sophistication

Cognitive and developmental psychologists have focused upon role-taking in terms of a developmental process. Within this literature, role-taking is viewed as evidence that children have advanced in their maturation. These studies have generally found support for the idea that variation exists in individual role-taking ability.

There are many measures or role-taking tasks employed within this tradition. The most commonly used of these role-taking tasks is Flavell's (1968) measure, often called the "apple-dog" story. In this instance a child is shown a seven picture card sequence involving a child who encounters a ferocious dog and climbs an apple tree. After the child reads or is read this story, all of the cards showing the ferocious dog are removed. Another person then enters the room and the child is asked to predict the nature in which the new person will tell the story. If the child is capable of role-taking, he or she should be able to realize that the new person does not have the same information as he or she does, thus predicting that the new person will tell a different story. The task measures role-taking sophistication, or the ability of the child to conceive that others also hold expectations that map their thoughts and actions regarding the situation.

Another popular measurement task within this tradition is Chandler's (1973) assessment of cognitive role-taking. This task also deals with privileged information. In this task the child is shown a cartoon involving two people, one of whom is privy to information the other is not. An example given by Enright and Lapsley (1980) portrays a young boy who breaks a window with a baseball. The young boy then runs home. A

knock at the door elicits a frightened response from the boy. The boy's father, not knowing of the baseball incident, appears confused regarding the boy's reaction. Much like Flavell's task, a child capable of role-taking should acknowledge the fact that the father does not know why the boy is afraid. Again, this measurement examines the ability of the child to conceive that others also hold expectations that map their thoughts and actions regarding the situation.

A final example is a task designed by Miller, Kessel, and Flavell (1970) which assesses the extent to which a child can conceive of an individual thinking about another's thoughts. For example, a child is taught through a series of examples the difference between a cartoon thought bubble and a cartoon talking bubble. The child is then shown a series of cartoons in which an individual is thinking or talking, and the child is asked about the subject of the cartoon individual's thoughts or speech. To be more specific, the child may be shown a cartoon in which an individual has a thought bubble with an apple in it. If the child says, "He is thinking of an apple", the child is correct. However, a more difficult picture is shown in which an individual has a thought bubble. Inside this thought bubble is a picture of another person with a thought bubble inside which is a picture of the main individual. To correctly decipher this cartoon, the child must state that the main cartoon character is thinking about another cartoon character's thoughts about him. In theory, the child would have to be aware that one can think of another's thoughts about one's self in order to understand the cartoon.

The results of research in this area find that role-taking sophistication is positively associated with maturity (Eisenberg et al, 1987) and altruism (Iannotti 1978),

but the links between power, gender, and role-taking sophistication remain confused (Eisenberg et al, 1987).

Role-Taking Ability: Accuracy

Most early (pre-1950) studies regarding role-taking accuracy were included in a search for variation in empathy (Biddle 1986). At the time, it was thought that some persons had the trait of empathy and some did not. The thought of the era was that a person who could judge others' expectations accurately would make better group leaders, counselors, or therapists. However, by the mid-1950's, the questionable empathy scales and other questionable methods employed by this early research were criticized. This criticism and a waning interest in the study of empathy effectively ended the research geared toward finding leaders which has largely vanished today (Biddle 1986).

Research on the subject of role-taking ability experienced a revival in the late 1950's and through the 1970's (see Wheeler 1961; Preiss & Ehrlich 1966, Howells & Brosnan 1972; Thomas, et al 1972). These latter studies reported considerable variation in subjects' role-taking ability.

Wheeler (1961) examined what he called "role perceptions" by administering questionnaires to prison inmates and prison staff. The questionnaire was composed of nine vignettes, each followed by an associated Likert-type statement asking the respondent to approve or disapprove of the behavior of the primary actor. Six of the vignettes related to the behavior of an inmate. The remaining three vignettes focused on

the behavior of prison staff. After completing the vignettes privately, the researchers obtained from both the inmates and the staff their perceptions of the proportion of inmates and staff that would approve of the primary actors behavior in the vignettes. Wheeler found in each instance that prison inmates' perceptions of the proportion of inmates approving of the primary actor's behavior were more accurate than their perceptions of the proportion of prison staff approving of the primary actor's behavior. Similarly, the prison staff members were better predictors of the proportion of prison staff approving of the primary actor's behavior. No conclusions were drawn regarding the ability of the inmates to predict the proportion of staff approving of the primary actors or vice versa.

Preiss & Ehrlich (1966) examined role-conflict as a means to better understand the relationships among actual role-expectations, perceived role-expectations, and role performance. The researchers conducted face to face interviews with police officers. The officers were asked several questions regarding time among different aspects of the job, his attitudes about informing on other officers, and his expectations for his own obligations as a citizen.¹

After each police officer answered these questions, they were then asked about their perceptions of the command staff's expectations of them in each area. Members of

¹ Preiss & Ehrlich (1966) worded the questions in the following manner:

"Was he to concern himself mainly with safety and traffic work, or mainly with complaint and criminal investigation, or was he to spend equal time on both?"

"Was he to be 'on the job' twenty-four hours a day, or was his job to be left behind when off duty?"

"Would he report other officers for stealing or keep quiet?"

"Was he expected to be a model citizen setting an example for the community or a good citizen no different from others?"

the command staff were asked the same questions regarding their expectations of the police officers in the four areas. The researchers then compared the police officers' perceptions of the command staff's expectations with the actual expectations of the command staff.

Preiss and Ehrlich found that the police officers varied in their ability to predict the expectations of command staff. The predictions differed in accuracy varied by individual officer, level of command staff (i.e., district command, post command, or assistant post command), and question (1, 2, 3, or 4). It is interesting to note that even though the police officers were inaccurate in their perceptions of the command staff's expectations of them, the majority of the police officers' actual observed behavior conformed to the expectations of the command staff.

Howells and Brosnan (1972) simply called their measure "prediction". They were interested in the ability of management to predict workers' preferences. The researchers distributed a questionnaire to employees in which they were told to assume that the firm was prepared to give them extra benefits worth \$200 in the coming year. The workers were then asked choose the way that they would like this money distributed among the alternatives. The alternatives were (1) shorter work week, (2) additional paid holiday, (3) more take-home pay, (4) safety improvements, (5) staff development scheme, (6) improved social amenities, (7) improved working conditions. It was made clear that all benefits would be personal and would not be distributed over the whole labor force. Each respondent received information regarding the cost of each option and was allowed to choose multiple options up to \$200.

Supervisors, foremen, managers, and officers were asked to predict the way in which the average worker allocated the money over the seven alternatives as well as how the average worker would rank the alternatives. Results showed that foremen were the best predictors, managers and supervisors were next with the same ability to predict, and officers were the worst predictors. The concept of a diminished ability to successfully predict workers' preferences as one ascends the managerial ladder from supervisor to officer is not supported.

Thomas, et al. (1972), not unlike literature discussed above, employed a type of judgment test to measure role-taking within the nuclear family. Only families with a father, mother, one male child, and one female child participated in the research. Each of the ten items in the measurement instrument presented a hypothetical situation in which a fictional actor was placed in a dilemma. The respondent was then asked to indicate how he or she would advise the fictional actor. The parents were asked to predict the way in which each of their children would respond to the items, and the children were asked to predict the way in which each of their parents would respond to the items.

Following Goffman (1959), the researchers proposed that subordinates could use role-taking to control others' responses by pleasing them on their own terms. This is especially the case in situations where subordinates attempt to constrain superiors. The subordinate must role-take accurately in order to maintain the power that he/she has in the situation. For example, the subordinate must not misjudge the superior's behavior lest they be identified as a fawner.

The researchers hypothesized that the female child would be the most accurate predictor, followed by the male child, then the mother, and finally the father would be the least accurate predictor. The pattern of the data supported the hypothesized relationship. The second hypothesis stated that children who had perceived their parents as high power would be better predictors than those who had perceived their parents as having low power. No evidence was found to support the second hypothesis.

Taken together, these studies indicated that the ability to project another's preferences and some types of role-taking accuracy varied among individuals. Moreover, this variation was found to be associated with structural conditions. For example, persons who interacted regularly were found to take one another's roles more accurately than those who did not, people were better role-takers with others like them, and less powerful individuals were better role-takers than more powerful individuals.

Despite the promising path of research in the 1970's and 80's, sociologists have tended to conceive of role-taking as a one-dimensional cognitive activity. Role-taking has been seen as an all-or-nothing proposition, something people either do or don't do (see Schwalbe 1988 for a review). This trend toward an all-or-nothing conception of role-taking is unintuitive given prior literature because it seems to be generally agreed that adults can vary with respect to their ability to take the role of the other, although there is no agreement as to why, nor much empirical evidence as to precisely how.

Problems in Examining Variation in Role-Taking Ability

Cast (2004) notes that the ability of role-taking research to address variation in role-taking has been limited. Focusing on the cross-sectional nature of past research, Cast explains that perhaps the lack of research on change in role-taking ability is due to the lack of longitudinal data on the subject. While longitudinal data involving the measurement of change in role-taking ability over time would surely improve the ability of research to address variation in role-taking, I would also add that prior studies of role-taking variation are flawed because of their use of the individual's perceptions of their own role-taking ability as the dependent variable. Even Cast, whose point about the lack of longitudinal data in the area is well taken, employs a measure of role-taking taken from Stets (1993) which uses the respondent's perception of their own role-taking accuracy. This measure asks respondents to answer statements such as, "I have difficulty seeing my spouses viewpoint in an argument" and "I understand my spouses feelings quite well" on a five item scale (1 = never, 5 = very often). A behavioral measure of role-taking ability would improve the measure of variation in role-taking ability by eliminating the problems associated with the use of respondents' perceptions

Possible Cause of Variation

Like Schwalbe, Thomas, and Forte, Franks, et al. (1996), Cast argues that role-taking is situational or context-specific, stating that individuals owning power are less likely to engage in role-taking than individuals without. Interacting with powerful others whose behavior one must anticipate in order to obtain desired rewards might encourage

the development of role-taking accuracy (Thomas et al., 1972; Schwalbe 1988). Thus, those in power are less accurate role-takers. For example, Cast and Bird (2005) find that women are more likely to perceive that they can role-take with their husbands than the husbands perceive that they can role-take with their wives. This phenomenon holds true even when wives increase participation in paid labor and when husbands increase participation in household work. In other words, even when husbands participated in jobs traditionally employed by their wives and vice versa, husbands still perceived that they can role-take with their wives at a lower rate than wives perceive that they can role-take with their husbands. Gender ideology was found to be the moderating factor in the analyses. The role-taking perceptions of couples holding an egalitarian ideology were affected by the changes in participation in household and paid labor whereas the perceptions of non-egalitarian couples were not. For example, wives in marriages holding an egalitarian gender ideology perceived themselves to be better role-takers with their husbands after having increased participation in paid labor. The same can be said of husbands in marriages characterized by egalitarian gender ideology who increased their participation in household labor. On the contrary, both wives and husbands in non-egalitarian couples did not perceive themselves as better role-takers after increasing their participation in paid labor and household labor respectively.

In earlier research examining identity resolution (Cast 2003), it is suggested that power differences in a relationship affect the ability of individuals to behave in ways consistent with their identities, influence the behavior of others, and resist the identities that others seek to impose on them. The results of this research found that greater

structural power (i.e. gender, occupation, education, etc.) or more relationship power² compared to one's spouse allows an individual to (a) behave in ways that are consistent with their identity, (b) resist the influence of the spouse, and (c) influence the spouse's behavior. When an individual holds both greater structural and relationship power, the individual's influence (a, b, &c) over the spouse is even more powerful.

Schwalbe (1988) theoretically discusses possible antecedents of role-taking accuracy. He concludes that the most important is power. He arrives at this conclusion by adding on to the findings and conclusions of the Thomas et al. (1972) study mentioned above. Thomas et al. found that female children were the most accurate predictors of their parents' answers on a certain judgment test. They found that male children were the second most accurate predictors, followed by mothers, and then fathers. Schwalbe uses the support that Thomas and colleagues garnered for their first hypothesis to surmise that one's interaction with powerful others whose "worldviews and inner states" must be predicted in order to obtain desired resources or rewards might foster the development of role-taking accuracy. Thus, the ability to take the role of the other accurately is a skill that can be and is learned by the less powerful in order to survive materially. Role-taking accuracy must be affected by the existence of power imbalances.

² Represented by husbands' and wives' relative positions in the power structure of their marriage measured by gender, occupational status, and education.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

There are two major deterrents to the advancement of research on role-taking. The first is the lack of precision in definitions of the concept; the second, related to the first, concerns the inappropriate measures of the concept. To examine the factors that lead to variation in role-taking accuracy, a precise definition of role-taking is necessary. Once an explicit theoretical definition is in place, a measurement of the concept can be addressed.

Definition of Role-Taking

As mentioned previously, there have been many definitions of role-taking, none of which has been taken as a common definition accepted by most. I am distilling the common elements from these definitions. This leads to a definition that allows a straightforward behavioral measurement to enable the conceptualization of how different kinds of variables or factors might affect role-taking, I am leaving the issue of imagination and attitude as part of the question rather than part of the conceptualization of role-taking.

Role-taking is the accuracy with which one can predict the behaviors of another.

This definition is useful when compared to current definitions of role-taking because it is parsimonious and it can be measured independently of the individual. It also makes no necessary reference to cognition so as to remain agnostic about how much

and what kind of cognition is necessary. Such omission solves many conceptual problems and consequently measurement issues about how best to measure cognition and whether consciousness is or is not necessary. In addition, it could be argued that previous definitions are ethnocentric because they assume that organisms unable to cognitively imagine a perspective are also unable to role-take. This does not appear to be the case. It is widely believed that primates can role-take to some degree (Meddin 1979).

It is important to note that role-taking is not role playing. This is a common misconception. Role playing refers to the performance of a behavioral pattern related to a social position (Lauer & Boardman 1971). While it is true enough that in order to play at roles an individual must indeed engage to some degree in the process of role-taking (Mead 1934, Lauer & Boardman 1971), role-taking precedes role play and is a very different concept.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Previous literature suggests that power position will affect individuals' ability to role-take. While many researchers have discussed this, it has not been directly tested. To test this, it is necessary to first develop a satisfactory instrument for the measure of role-taking ability.

The task of creating a measurement instrument of this type is daunting. Ideally a study concentrating on role-taking accuracy would use the prediction of actual behavior as the dependent variable. However, the concept of the prediction of actions is problematic because it would be difficult to create a situation in which the researcher could elicit a response from an individual that would have large variation in outcomes and that would also be predictable at a rate higher than that of a random guess.

Another consideration in the formation of the measurement instrument is the importance of separating the respondent's own perceptions of role-taking accuracy from an actual measure of accuracy. I also wanted to avoid the sole use of judgment tests as predictors. While judgment tests are still important, predicting ways in which someone would evaluate a situation is different than predicting the ways in which a person will respond or behave. Additionally, the utilization of a topic that is engaging to the respondent was important for holding their attention and maintaining their best efforts. Problem solving behavior fit these criteria.

Development of Scenarios

Problem solving scenarios and moral judgments were examined. The problem solving scenarios were developed specific to the group from which the subjects would be chosen and the moral judgment test was a more diffuse, general set of scenarios that have been utilized in other studies.

The problem solving scenarios involved common roommate conflicts. Subjects were asked to view videos of roommates discussing their problems and were then asked to offer solutions to the roommates as to how best to resolve the conflicts. To determine the specific issues addressed in the roommate conflicts, a survey consisting of a single, open-ended item was administered to a class of undergraduate students. The students were asked to write down some common problems that they had faced or that they face with roommates. These responses were collected and tallied. The roommate issues that were listed with the highest frequency were adopted and used as the target problems in the fictional roommate videos.

The first roommate video depicted two males discussing issues that include: dirty clothes scattered about the room, dirty dishes left in sink or elsewhere, watching television at a very high volume, monopolization of the television, microwaving smelly food, leaving a messy microwave, interrupting study time, listening to loud music, and late night video games. The second roommate video depicted two females discussing issues that include: friends coming over, not getting along with the roommate's friends, monopolizing the bathroom, using the other's soap/shampoo, sharing chores, taking out

trash, pet ownership, , and cleaning up after a dog. The scripts of the two videos are included in Appendix A.

Subsequent questions were developed that asked the subjects to judge various aspects of each of the two roommate discussions. These questions explored the motives behind the problem solving approaches taken by the subjects. For example, the subjects are asked to rate each specific issue discussed by the roommates as either not important or very important. Subjects were also asked to rank the importance of broader issues such as messiness in general, lack of communication, disrespect, and responsibility

A second set of scenarios were presented to the subjects for their judgment. The Moral Judgment Test (Lind 1985) was first developed to assess moral judgment competence by recording how a subject conceptualizes and reasons through moral issues. The MJT presents arguments that both support and oppose different positions on a difficult problem. Three of the available MJT scenarios were first included in the instrument (described later). In the current study the MJT is used as a more general set of scenarios for the subjects to judge. It was assumed that it may be easier for an undergraduate to predict another undergraduate's responses to roommate conflicts than to other scenarios simply because of shared experiences. The Moral Judgment Test (MJT) asks subjects to contemplate vignettes that will elicit a larger variation in responses.

Both instruments were pretested using graduate student volunteers. These students made comments the structure, ease of use, and length of the exercise. Through

this testing, it was determined that one of the MJT scenarios, The Doctor³, should be removed because it generated less variation in its responses.

Because it was desirable to have as much variation as possible in the subjects' problem solving suggestions to the roommates, it is evident that open-ended questions were the best option. Giving the subject's multiple choice categories restricts individual differences in problem solving style and would bias predictability toward the positive. On this basis, each subject was asked to give verbal suggestions that were recorded using a webcam mounted at the top of the subject's computer screen. In this way, the subjects had the freedom to offer many different kinds of suggestions for problem solving.

To ensure that subjects would feel that their responses were important, subjects were told that that a fictional department on campus had contacted the Social Psychology Research Laboratory. The subjects were told that one of the fictional department's responsibilities was roommate arbitration, and that because students are more likely to take the advice of peers than of university officials, the department wanted to elicit suggestions from the undergraduate populace. The subjects were told that the roommates depicted in the video clips had agreed to be filmed and had agreed to talk calmly about their issues. The subjects were told that the fictional department wanted them to video tape their suggestions and that their suggestions would be relayed to the roommates. Because this deception was employed, students were carefully debriefed at the end of the experiment about all aspects of the study

³ In this scenario a doctor was portrayed as giving a dying patient a lethal dose of morphine after the patient requested that the doctor do so.

Validating the Instrument

There are several indicators of whether the instrument would enable measurement of role-taking as defined. First, there should be relatively large variation in the outcome measures. Secondly, the variation should be related to the relationship between actors or individuals. Most importantly, the underlying assumption, that those who know each other well are better able to engage in role-taking than those who do not know each other, should be confirmed.

METHODS AND PROCEDURE

To validate the measurement instrument a validation study was completed in order to determine whether the instrument differentiates between pairs who have known each other and interacted for a relatively long period of time and those who have not. The validation study used same-sex dyads who knew each other well (Friends) and same-sex dyads who had met one another (Strangers). This results in a 2 (male or female) by 2 (friends or strangers) factorial design. There were 10 dyads for each of the four conditions making a total of 40 dyads. Presumably those that have known each other and have interacted with one another for a relatively long period of time will be better predictors of each other's behavior and moral judgment than those who have just met and have had limited interaction with one another.

Participants

Participants were eighty college students, forty males and forty females, enrolled in courses at Texas A&M University. Potential participants were recruited in their classes and asked to volunteer for the study by completing a sign up sheet. Potential participants were then contacted by telephone and scheduled to participate in the study. The students received compensation in the amount of twenty dollars for their participation.

At the time of telephone contact, participants were randomly assigned to the friends or strangers condition to make ten dyads in each of the four conditions: male-strangers, male-friends, female-strangers, female-friends. Participants who were randomly chosen to be in the Strangers condition were simply scheduled to come alone

to the study and were subsequently paired with a same sex participant in the same condition. Participants who were randomly chosen to be in the Friends condition were asked at the time of the phone call to bring a same-sex friend with them to the study. Every participant who was assigned to the Friends category had a friend who was willing to participate.

Procedure

Upon arrival, participants were greeted by a white, female research assistant and briefly introduced to one another if they were strangers; the introduction was not needed if they were friends. The participants were lead into a common room and seated. Consent was obtained at this time through the signing of a standard informed consent sheet. Next, the research assistant read instructions to the participants regarding the activity (Appendix B). The participants were told that an office on campus had contacted the Social Psychology Research Laboratory and had asked us to help them in their task of solving routine roommate conflicts. The participants were told that previous research had shown that college students were more likely to take the advice of peers rather than of university officials regarding this matter and that, as such, we needed their help. They were told that their initial responses would be video taped and that we would send the videos to the roommates who pledged to try the suggestions. The participants were informed that the video was the only part of their answers that would be seen by the roommates and that their answers to other questions like “Who do

you think is at fault the most?” would not be connected to their video tape in any way. The participants were given an opportunity to ask questions or decide not to participate.

Next, the participants were led to separate rooms to begin the exercise. The exercise was completely computerized⁴. Basic instructions regarding how to move through the exercise were displayed on the computer screen for the participants, and very rarely did problems arise once the participants began the exercise.

Upon completion of the experiment, the participants were fully debriefed and informed of any deception involved in the study. Any questions that the participants had were answered thoroughly, and the participants were compensated for their time.

The Scenarios

Participants viewed a video clip depicting male roommates discussing common roommate problems, then were prompted to record their suggestions to the roommates for reconciliation, then were asked other questions about the roommate situation. These questions asked the participants to determine which issue they thought was most important, which roommate was at fault the most, and whether they thought the roommates would remain roommates in the future. Next, a similar video was shown depicting female roommates discussing common roommate problems. The participants were prompted again to give video suggestions on how to resolve the problems. The participants were then asked a similar series of questions as described above asking the

⁴ Special thanks are due to Dr. Jeff Ackerman. This work would not be possible without his development of the software employed in this study.

participants to determine which issues were most important, which roommate was the most at fault, and whether the roommates would remain roommates in the future.

Upon completion of the roommate section, the participants were asked to complete the Moral Judgment Test. In this section, the participants read vignettes depicting two scenarios and are asked to judge various aspects of them (see Appendix D). The first scenario involves a judge who must decide whether or not to allow torture of a terrorist to bus bombing might potentially be prevented. The second scenario involves workers who have to decide whether or not to break into their supervisor's office to uncover audio tapes that prove wrongful termination of their coworkers. Participants are asked to evaluate arguments for and against the torture or the break-in based on different moral justifications.

After the completion of the Roommate Arbitration section and the MJT section the participants are asked to try to predict the answers of their study partner for the same sections. The participants are asked to do this in the following manner:

You are now finished with the first part of the study. For the second part of the study, we would like you to complete the same questions again. This time we want you to **PREDICT THE ANSWER THAT YOUR STUDY PARTNER GAVE**. We would like you to do this even if you do not know your study partner personally.

So, the participants go through the entire exercise again. Only this time, they record the videos and answer the questions in the way that they believe their study partner has recorded the videos and answered the questions. The resulting videos are used to create the behavioral role-taking measure while the other questions are used to determine the Roommate Role-Taking Score and the MJT Role-Taking score.

Independent Variables

Sex category is recorded through self categorization by the subject. The exact question wording is “What is your biological sex?” Friends versus Strangers condition was randomly assigned and recorded through the use of a simple binary variable coded 0 for strangers and 1 for friends. Length of association was recorded only for those subjects in the Friends condition. The subjects were allowed to enter text describing the length of their relationship. This text was converted manually into length in months.

Dependent Variables

There two measures of role-taking accuracy. Role-taking accuracy for the roommate conflict was measured by comparing the participant’s predictions of his or her partner’s answers to the partner’s actual answers for the roommate conflict scenarios. These questions addressed the importance of specific issues discussed by the roommates, which roommate was at fault, and other topics (see Appendix C for the questionnaire). Additionally, there was an accuracy measure for the Moral Judgment Test (MJT) scenarios developed by Georg Lind (see Appendix D).

For both measures, the accuracy score was constructed by dividing the number of correct predictions by the total number of predictions to create a number that represents the proportion correct. Since it is a proportion, the role-taking score ranges in value from 0 to 1, with 0 meaning no correct predictions and 1 meaning all predictions were correct. The higher the role-taking score, the more accurate the prediction.

Other Measures

Perceived role-taking accuracy was measured by asking participants, “On a scale from 1 to 10, how accurately do you think you have predicted all of your study partner’s answers? Please select one.” A scale from 1 to 10 was presented with the 1 labeled “Not at all accurate” and the 10 labeled “Very accurate”. Participants’ chose the number they thought best represented their accuracy.

Perceived similarity of the participant’s answers to the study partner’s answers is measured by the following question, “Think about the suggestions you gave orally and the rankings you marked as your own answers in the first part of the questionnaire. How similar, do you think, are the oral suggestions and rankings that you gave for your own answers to the answers your study partner gave as their own answers?” Again a scale from 1 to 10 is presented with the 1 labeled “Not at all similar” and the 10 labeled “Very similar”. The participants chose the number that best represented their similarity.

When examining a new way of measuring a construct, it is important to explore the possibility that the new measure is simply measuring something else. This is an issue of validity. Could it be that certain personality types are more or less accurate role-takers, and that this new way of measuring role-taking ability is merely measuring one or more personality types? For example, neurotic individuals are said to be more likely to interpret ordinary situations as threatening, and minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult. They are also said to be shy and have problems with interpersonal communication (Matthews and Deary 1998). In an attempt to establish discriminate validity it is important to examine the relationship between personality constructs and role taking

ability. To examine this relationship, personality characteristics are measured using the Big Five Inventory taken from John and Srivastava (1999). The 44 item inventory asks participants to mark whether they Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neither Disagree or Agree, Agree, or Strongly Agree with statements regarding the way they perceive themselves. The root is always “I see myself as someone who...”. Characteristics are then presented for consideration by the participants. Examples include, “is full of energy” , “is easily distracted”, and “can be tense” (see Appendix E). Each item of the inventory relates to one of five personality constructs, Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. The items are tallied for each participant resulting in five separate scores, one for each personality construct. Higher scores on a construct indicate that the individual exhibits the construct more strongly than do lower scores.

Finally, common demographic variables were self reported by the participants. These included age, race, gender, and classification. Similarly, the respondents in the friends condition were asked to report the nature of their relationship to one another. Possible responses to the nature of the relationship included siblings, friends, roommates, and romantic partners. There were no occurrences of romantic partners.

RESULTS

Role-Taking Accuracy

Two role-taking accuracy scores were calculated for each participant, one for their predictions of their partner's answers on the roommate portion of the exercise (Roommate Role-Taking Score) and one for their predictions of their partner's answers on the Moral Judgment Test portion of the exercise (MJT Role-Taking Score).

Roommate Role-Taking

Table 1 contains the analysis of variance table for the entire factorial. The F for the overall ANOVA is significant for both sex type ($p = .027$) as well as condition, Friends or Strangers ($p = .017$). In addition, the interaction term exhibits a marginally statistically significant p value of .060 leading to the conclusion that the effect of being in the Friends or Strangers condition is not the same for males and females. See Figure 1 for a graphical representation of the interaction.

To assess the magnitude of the interaction between condition and gender, the unstandardized coefficients associated with the ANOVA displayed in Table 1 were examined. The coefficients associated with the Strangers condition, being Female, and the interaction term are -0.004, 0.050, and -0.044, respectively. Thus only category in which the effect is not trivial is Female Friends. Being friends is important to Roommate Role-Taking ability but only for females, or being female is important but only for friends. For males, knowing one another creates a trivial difference. For strangers, gender creates a trivial difference.

Table 1: Analysis of Variance for Roommate Role-Taking Score

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Pr>F</u>
Model	3	.013	4.875	.004
Error	76	.003		
Corrected Total	79			
<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Pr>F</u>
Friends	1	.013	5.062	.027
Male	1	.016	5.930	.017
Friends*Male	1	.010	3.632	.060

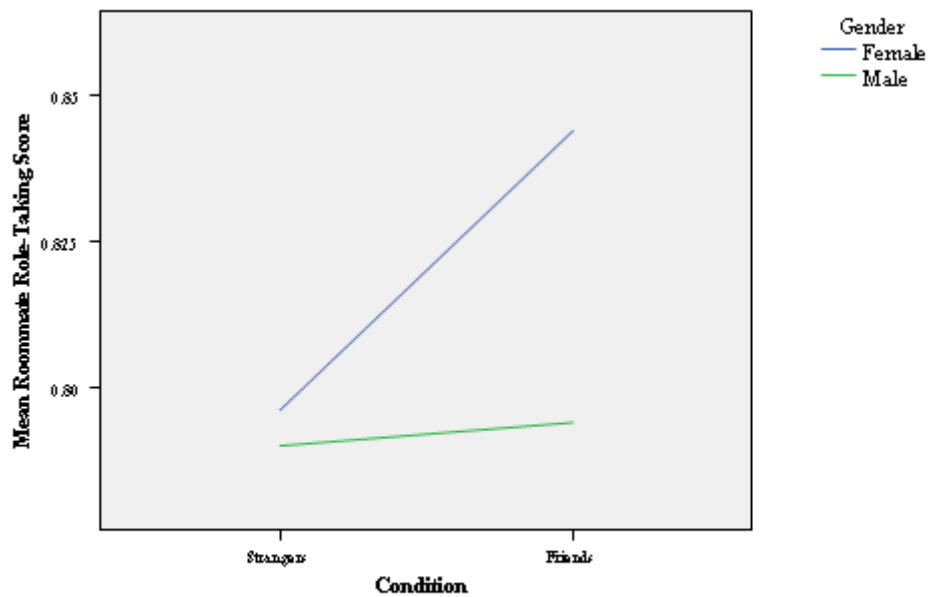
**Figure 1: Mean Roommate Role-Taking Score by Gender**

Table 2 contains the means of Roommate Role-Taking score. The overall mean of Roommate Role-Taking Score was .806. Regarding the Friends or Strangers conditions, friends exhibited a mean of .819 and strangers exhibited a mean of .793. Regarding sex category, females and males exhibited means of .820 and .792 respectively. Regarding the four conditions, the mean Roommate Role-Taking Scores

Table 2: Mean Roommate Role-Taking Score

<u>Category</u>	<u>Mean (SD)</u>
All subjects (n=80)	.806 (.055)
Friends (n=40)	.819 (.056)
Strangers (n=40)	.793 (.052)
Males (n=40)	.792 (.052)
Females (n=40)	.820 (.055)
Male Friends (n=20)	.794 (.059)
Male Strangers (n=20)	.790 (.047)
Female Friends (n=20)	.844 (.040)
Female Strangers (n=20)	.796 (.058)

were shown to be ranked in this manner with mean Roommate Role-Taking Score in parentheses: Female Friends (.844), Female Strangers (.796), Male Friends (.794), and Male Strangers (.790). The overall standard deviation associated with Roommate Role-

Taking score is 0.055. Thus, on this scale the difference between Female Friends and the other categories is a full standard deviation. The other three categories are clustered closely together.

Table 3: Analysis of Variance for MJT Role-Taking Score

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Pr>F</u>
Model	3	.021	2.199	.095
Error	76	.009		
Corrected Total	79			
<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Pr>F</u>
Friends	1	.003	.350	.556
Male	1	.058	6.183	.015
Friends*Male	1	.001	.064	.800

Analysis of variance (Table 3) showed that unlike Roommate Role-Taking Score, the means of MJT Role-Taking Score were not different across the randomly assigned conditions ($p = .556$). However, across sex category, the difference in means was statistically significant ($p = .015$). In other words, women were better at predicting other women's responses than were men at predicting other men's responses. As expected given the previous two results, the interaction term was not significant ($p = .800$). It

should be noted that the model F statistic is not high enough to produce a p value below .05.

Table 4: Mean MJT Role-Taking Score

<u>Category</u>	<u>Mean (SD)</u>
All subjects (n=80)	.676 (.099)
Friends (n=40)	.682 (.104)
Strangers (n=40)	.669 (.095)
Males (n=40)	.648 (.109)
Females (n=40)	.702 (.081)
Male Friends (n=20)	.658 (.120)
Male Strangers (n=20)	.639 (.099)
Female Friends (n=20)	.706 (.080)
Female Strangers (n=20)	.699 (.084)

Table 4 indicates the descriptive statistics for the MJT Role-Taking Score. The overall mean was .676. Participants in the Friends category exhibited a mean of .682 and those in the Strangers category had a mean of .669. Regarding sex category, females exhibited a mean of .702 and males showed at .648. Regarding the four conditions, the mean MJT Role-Taking Scores were ranked in this following manner

from high to low with mean scores in parentheses: Female Friends (.706), Female Strangers (.699), Male Friends (.658), Male Strangers (.639).

Friendship Duration

It is possible that role-taking accuracy could have further variation within the friends category depending upon how long the friends had known one another. First, did the male and female subjects vary significantly in the length of their friendships? The mean number of months of friendship duration for males was 30.83, and the mean number of months of friendship duration for females was 32.83. This difference between means across sex category is not statistically significant ($F = .028$, $p = .869$) meaning that friendship duration did not differ across sex category. Second, does friendship duration affect role-taking accuracy within the friends condition?

Correlations were conducted to examine this relationship.

Table 5 shows the results of the correlation between role-taking accuracy and friendship duration in months. As indicated, the relationship between friendship duration and Roommate Role-Taking is almost nonexistent ($p = .867$). A similar relationship is indicated between friendship duration and MJT Role-Taking ($p = .936$). All of this is to say that friendship duration does not affect role-taking accuracy within the friends condition.

Table 5: Correlation of Role-Taking Scores with Friendship Duration

	Roommate Role-Taking	MJT Role-Taking
Friendship Duration	-.027	.013

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Personality and Role-Taking

To examine the relationship between personality constructs and role-taking accuracy, correlations were calculated for each of the five personality construct from the Big Five Personality Index and the two role-taking scores. The personality constructs should not correlate with role-taking in order to establish discriminate validity.

As indicated in Table 6, none of the personality constructs is correlated with Roommate Role-Taking Score. Only one personality construct is correlated with the MJT Role-Taking Score, and that is Neuroticism. It was speculated that Neuroticism may indeed be related to role-taking in some manner. However, it was reasoned, given that Neuroticism is often associated with an individual's inability to make proper evaluations of other individuals or the meaning of other individuals' actions, this correlation would be negative in nature. In fact, the correlation is positive (.242), the opposite of what one would expect.

Table 6: Correlation of Role-Taking Scores with Big Five Personality Constructs

	Roommate Role-Taking	MJT Role-Taking
Openness	-.033	-.080
Conscientiousness	.025	-.005
Extraversion	-.090	-.078
Agreeableness	.021	.039
Neuroticism	.045	.242*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

It is important to note that the means and standard deviations obtained in the current study approximated normative findings in prior application of the Big Five Inventory (Peterson, Casillas, and Robbins 2006; Rammsayer and Rammstedt 2000). Means with standard deviations in parentheses are as follows: mean BFI Openness = 36 (6.8), mean BFI Conscientiousness = 31 (5.5), mean BFI Extraversion = 28 (7), mean BFI Agreeableness = 36 (5), mean BFI Neuroticism = 22 (7).

Could it be the case that female subjects were more neurotic than male subjects? If so the relationship between role-taking scores and neuroticism could actually be a spurious relationship, a result of sex category. On the other hand, because correlations are not unidirectional, a relationship between sex category and neuroticism could mean that role-taking accuracy is not related to sex, but to neuroticism.

A look at the means of Neuroticism by sex category shows that the female subjects present a much higher mean Neuroticism score than the male subjects, 24.68 and 19.08, respectively. A t-test was conducted to determine whether these apparent differences in means were great enough to warrant more attention. The results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: T-test, Neuroticism and Sex Category

<u>Source</u>	<u>Mean Neuroticism (SD)</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>Sig.</u>
Female	24.675 (6.53)	3.925	.000
Male	19.075 (6.23)		

Sex category appears to be the driving force behind the relationship between neuroticism and role-taking accuracy. Female subjects exhibited higher Neuroticism scores as well as higher role-taking scores. It is no surprise that females, on average, exhibited higher Neuroticism scores. It is well documented that females tend to score higher on this personality construct than do males (Jorm, et al. 1998, Martin and Kirkcaldy 1998, Helson, et al. 2002). Linear regression analysis, not shown, showed the relationship between Neuroticism and MJT Role-Taking to become no longer statistically significant ($p = .189$) when gender is controlled. Thus, it appears that the relationship between Neuroticism and Role-Taking is a spurious one.

Perception versus Reality

An important ability of the current research is the ability to compare the participant's actual role-taking accuracy with their self evaluated role-taking accuracy. Such a comparison is particularly important because prior studies of role-taking accuracy or ability rely on self report measures of the concept.

Table 8 displays the descriptive statistics regarding self reported accuracy. Combined, the subjects believe themselves to be more accurate than inaccurate (5.49). As expected, friends believe that they can predict their partner's behavior somewhat accurately while strangers think that they will be less accurate predictors. Male friends are especially confident in their ability to accurately predict their partner's behavior, and female strangers are very likely to believe that they are inaccurate predictors. Males tend to think that they can predict their behavior somewhat accurately, while females are not as confident in their accuracy. To determine whether the mean differences exhibited across sex category and condition were statistically significant, an ANOVA was conducted. The results are presented in Table 9.

The F is significant for the overall model as well as for sex type and condition. It appears that the differences in mean predicted accuracy between male and female and friends and strangers, shown in Table 8, are indeed statistically significantly different. Note that there is not interaction between gender and relationship.

Table 8: Mean Self Reported Accuracy*

<u>Category</u>	<u>Mean (SD)</u>
All subjects (n=80)	5.49 (1.903)
Friends (n=40)	6.15 (1.594)
Strangers (n=40)	4.83 (1.973)
Males (n=40)	6.08 (1.953)
Females (n=40)	4.90 (1.676)
Male Friends (n=20)	6.80 (1.361)
Male Strangers (n=20)	5.35 (2.207)
Female Friends (n=20)	5.50 (1.573)
Female Strangers (n=20)	4.30 (1.593)

* Scale 1 to 10

Table 9: Analysis of Variance, Self Reported Accuracy by Condition and Sex Category

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Pr>F</u>
Model	3	21.013	7.163	.000
Error	76	2.934		
Corrected Total	79			
<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Pr>F</u>
Friends	1	35.113	11.969	.000
Male	1	27.613	9.413	.000
Friends*Male	1	.313	.107	.745

In this research, we have the opportunity to compare perceived ability to actual role-taking accuracy. The correlations are shown in Table 10. Self-evaluated role-taking accuracy is significantly correlated with neither Roommate Role-Taking Score nor MJT Role-Taking Score. The only conclusion to be made is that individuals can not realistically estimate their own ability to predict another individual's behavior. More specifically, males overestimate their ability to predict another individual's behavior, and females underestimate theirs.

Table 10: Correlation of Role-Taking Scores with Perceived Accuracy

	<u>Roommate Role-Taking</u>	<u>MJT Role-Taking</u>
Perceived Accuracy	.210 (p = .193)	.026 (p = .875)

Possible Tactics

One possible way that individuals may try to role-take is to simply assume that their partners' responses are the same as their own. Is there evidence that this is a strategy of the participants? To address this, I created two additional scores.

These additional scores were produced by comparing the participant's responses with those of his or her partner, as well as by comparing the participant's responses with his or her own predictive responses. This Similarity Score was derived by comparing the participants first set of responses, those that were meant to be his or her own, with those of the partner. The number of matched responses is divided by the number of

possible matches (total responses) to create the proportion matched. This is the Similarity Score.

In mathematical terms:

$$\text{Similarity Score} = [368 - (|x| - |y|)/368]$$

Where:

x = the participant's answer to a given item

y = the partner's answer to the same item

368 = number of possible matches

Correlation between Similarity Score and perceived similarity of answers reveals that, once again, individuals seem poor estimators. Similarity Score and perceived similarity are not statistically significantly correlated ($r = .013$, $p = .938$).

The second additional score that was calculated was Move Score. Move Score is calculated by comparing the participants own responses with the participant's predictive responses. For example, when Participant A answered item 10 in the exercise, he chose 7 on a scale of 1 to 10. Now, when Participant A attempted to predict the answer of his partner on the same question, did he choose 7 (zero move) or did he choose another number? If he chose 5, his answer moved by 2. The Move Score is essentially a Similarity Score but within one participant across the two parts of the exercise.

In mathematical terms:

$$\text{Move Score} = \Sigma(|x| - |y|)$$

Where:

x = the participants answer to a given item

y = the participant's predicted answer for their partner on the same item

Table 11 shows the ways in which Move Score is correlated with other measures.

As is shown, Move Score has a moderate negative correlation with MJT Role-Taking

Table 11: Correlation of Move Score with Role-Taking Scores and Perceived Accuracy and Similarity

	<u>MJT Role-Taking</u>	<u>Roommate Role-Taking</u>	<u>Perceived Accuracy</u>	<u>Perceived Similarity</u>
Move Score	-.304**	-.257*	-.319**	-.327**

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Score (-.304). Participants who changed their answers greatly away from their own to make their predictions were less accurate predictors. The same can be said for Roommate Role-Taking Score (-.257). On average, if participants had predicted answers more similar to their own, they would have been more accurate. The Move Score is also negatively correlated with perceived accuracy (-.319) and perceived similarity (-.327). This finding lends validity to our measure of perceived similarity. Not only did participants think they were not similar in some cases, they acted on it by predicting responses for their partner that differed from their own.

It appears that the subjects answered in ways that were more similar than they thought. The correlations show that if a participant had a high Move Score, on average, they are a less accurate predictor. Could it be that people are more alike than we like to think? Are these subjects all alike because they are from similar backgrounds? Or could it be that examining strangers and friends together is clouding the real relationship? Move Score is negatively correlated with perceived accuracy. Is it that individuals thought they were less accurate because they guessed wildly, or did individuals guess wildly and then say they were inaccurate?

To examine some of these questions, Move Score was further examined by separating friends and strangers and examining correlations. When only including the Strangers condition, Move Score is only correlated significantly with the two Role-Taking Scores, nothing else. This could mean that people who are strangers THINK that they are very different from their study partner. Thus, the answers that they predict diverge dramatically from their own. However, in actuality, they would have been more accurate predictors if they had assumed that they were similar to their partner. When strangers are viewed separately, The Move Score is no longer significantly correlated with perceived accuracy. This leads one to believe that these people weren't randomly guessing. If they had been randomly guessing, we would expect that Move Score would have been significantly negatively correlated with perceived accuracy, unless people believe that random guesses are accurate.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This study examined a new method for conceptualizing and measuring role-taking. Following existing research and theorizing by Schwalbe and others, the current research specifically examines the concept of role-taking accuracy. It appears plausible that individual variation in role-taking accuracy exists. However, there appear to be numerous factors that lead an individual to be a better role-taker in various situations. Because role-taking is an integral part of any interaction, it is important that we study the causes of variation in role-taking ability.

Whether or not role-taking takes place is rarely debated in current social psychological literature. However, much about the act of role-taking is untested. The aim of this research was to define role-taking in a manner that facilitates further theory building and testing, and to undertake the initial task of designing and validating a measure of role-taking that departs from the self-evaluative measures currently used. Role-taking was defined as the accuracy at which an individual can predict the behaviors of others. A computer based survey instrument was created consisting of video and written vignettes designed to test subjects' ability to predict their study partner's behavior. A specialized set of vignettes was created for the subject pool and involved common roommate conflicts. A second set of vignettes were employed to be a measure a more general role-taking ability that involved the prediction of moral attitudes and judgments.

It was found that the more specialized vignettes, the roommate scenarios, were more suitable for measuring role-taking accuracy than were the broader vignettes taken

from the Moral Judgment Test. Subjects as a whole and by subcategory were less accurate when predicting the MJT answers of their partner than when predicting ways in which their partner would solve roommate conflicts. In addition, the MJT portion of the instrument differentiated only between sex category and not between friends/strangers condition. The roommate scenarios appear to have differentiated among all categories.

Females, regardless of experimental condition, recorded higher role-taking scores than did their male counterparts. This finding showed that it's possible that women as a class are more accurate role-takers than men. Even female strangers could more accurately predict their partner's behavior than could men who were friends. There are several possible explanations for this result. Women are naturally better role-takers due to some biological difference, women are somehow socialized to be better role-takers than men, or men are socialized to be poor role-takers,. It is also possible that more than one of these is true. If it's true that women are socialized to be better role-takers than men, they are certainly not socialized to know it. The women in this study, on average, thought that they would be inaccurate role-takers when asked about their perceived role-taking accuracy. It could be the case that females are socialized to be more accurate role-takers out of necessity, given their relatively low status in society.

An especially important finding of this research is that perceived role-taking ability does not equal role-taking accuracy. Subjects' self-reported role-taking accuracy was not correlated with their actual role-taking accuracy scores. Because this is the case, it leads to re-thinking the meaning of studies that use self reported ability as the sole

measure of role-taking ability. It is obvious that a better measure is needed than self reported ability.

This research also demonstrated that individuals do not simply believe that everyone is like them - in fact, they seem to overestimate differences. This seems counter to the idea of ethnocentric bias in which individuals believe others are simply like themselves and would answer questions in much the same manner they did. Future research in this area should take on the task of detangling the effects of gender and power on role-taking. It has been postulated by some that those in power are less accurate role-takers because they don't have to be accurate. Likewise individuals with less power are more accurate role-takers because their survival depends on it. In addition, role-taking is an essential component of stereotyping or any other form of evaluation of others by an individual. Understanding the role of role-taking in these areas would greatly enhance our ability to study them. Researchers, educators, and administrators would be wise to focus on practical ways to increase individual role-taking ability in order to improve cooperation and efficiency in the classroom or the workplace.

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APPENDIX A

Video Scripts

Situation #1

John: “Michael, we’ve talked about this before, but I’m tired of your constant messiness. Your dirty clothes are all over the house, and you leave dirty dishes either lying around or you pile them up in the sink.

Michael: “That’s an exaggeration. You aren’t perfect either John. I feel like you monopolize the tv and you’ve always got the volume blasting way too loud.”

John: “What? No way.”

Michael: “Yeah. And don’t talk about my messiness. You are just as bad.”

John: “Like how?”

Michael: “You always microwave smelly food. You blow stuff up in the microwave and then just leave it without cleaning it up.”

John: “Why should I be the one to clean it up all the time? I clean up after myself all the time. You make a mess in the microwave just as much as I do.”

Michael: “Whatever dude. You ALWAYS splatter stuff everywhere in the microwave.”

John: “Well Michael, you don’t respect my study time at all. You are always playing loud music while I’m trying to study. Not to mention those video games you play into all hours of the night. “

Situation #2

Jill: “Karen, as you know, I have a problem with your friends coming over all the time. I don’t get along well with your friends, and I am not happy with the fact that you seem to think you can invite your friends over anytime you want without consulting me.”

Karen: “Jill, you are overreacting. Besides, you hog the bathroom and use all of my soap and shampoo.”

Jill: “No I don’t.”

Karen: “Yes you do, and as a matter of fact your friends come over just as much as mine do.”

Jill: “Yeah right.”

Karen: “It doesn’t matter. I am embarrassed to invite my friends over anymore because you refuse to do your part of the chores. “

Jill: “What are you talking about? I always clean up the house when it is messy. You slack on housework just as much as I do.”

Karen: “ I don’t think so. I mean, you never take out the trash. I always do it.”

Jill: “Well, what about that dog of yours? The dog is always chewing up my stuff, and I shouldn’t have to clean up after a pet that’s not mine.”

APPENDIX B

Conductor Script

[Greet the participants]

[Have them write their name on nametags and stick them to their upper chest/shoulder]

Now that the name tags are out of the way, we can begin the study.

Before we begin I want to let you know that I will be reading from a script because we want to keep the information we give to all people the same.

The first thing we will do is read and sign the informed consent sheet. Please read the front and back.

[pass out 2 copies of the Informed Consent Sheet to each participant]

It is important that you read and understand every part of this document. It tells you everything you need to know about the study as well as how you will be paid. Notice that if you ever feel uncomfortable, you are free to leave; if there are any questions on the questionnaire that you are uncomfortable answering, you are free to skip them.

Please initial and date the top of both sides of the page in the space provided signifying that you have read and understand each side of the page. When you have fully completed reading the document, please sign and date in the space provided. Do this for both copies.

When you are finished, give one copy to me and keep one copy for your records. There are important names and phone numbers listed there if you should have any questions later.

[Collect 1 copy of Informed Consent Sheet. Make sure it is signed.]

Now we can begin the study.

A department on campus has contacted us and asked us to help provide advice for common problems faced by undergraduate roommates. Prior research has shown that roommates are more likely to take the advice of peers than advice from university officials.

You are here to help us with this.

During this exercise we will show you very brief excerpts of longer conversations between two pairs of roommates. These roommates agreed to make note of their problems with one another, talk about these problems in a civil manner, take turns speaking, and allow themselves to be videotaped.

We want you to view the short clips and suggest ways in which the roommates might resolve their problems. We are going to videotape your responses electronically and give information from your responses to the roommates. When you speak into the camera, act as though you are talking with the roommates directly. The roommates have pledged to carefully consider your suggestions, as well as the suggestions of others.

(Pause)

We will ask you other questions regarding the roommates, but the roommates will not see these responses directly; they will only see a summary of these responses. So, your answers to the questions will not be linked to your videotape. For example, we might ask if you think one or the other roommate is at fault. Your answers to this type of question will not be linked to your video.
Do you have any questions?

[At this point, put the two participants in the separate rooms.]

INSTRUCTIONS FOR PARTICIPANTS

When you begin, you will be prompted for a username and password. Here it is on this notes page. [point to and recite username and password]

You can take notes if you wish on this page as well.

When you watch and listen to the videos, you will need to use the headphones. Feel free to adjust the size of the video display as well as the volume.

In the first part of the exercise, you will be asked to record two videos. In the second part, you will be asked to record two more videos. When you have finished recording the videos, there should be a total of four videos. It is important that you have all four.

Please use the checklist on the notes sheet to signify that you have recorded each video.

The instructions that you will see on your screen have been tested a lot and should be pretty good. However, we have had some questions about them. If you have any questions, or if anything is not clear, please open the door and ask us. We will be glad to answer your questions. If you have any problems at all, just open the door and let us know.

When you are finished, please open the door and tell us, and then return to your seat.

APPENDIX C

Roommate Questionnaire⁵

Regarding the first roommate video:

How important do you find the following issues faced by the roommates? Please mark your choice with an “X”.

	I find the issue...					
	not at all					very
	important					important
Messiness in general	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Lack of communication	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Disrespect	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Responsibility	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Dirty clothes	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Dirty dishes	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Loud television	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Monopolization of tv	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Microwaving smelly food	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Messy microwave	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Interrupted study	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>

⁵ The computer version of this questionnaire varies only visually; the text is the same.

Loud music

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Video games

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

On a scale from 1 to 10, how likely do you think it is that these two roommates will choose to be roommates next semester? Please circle one.

Not at all likely

Very Likely

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Mark an “X” on the line below to show the degree to which you think one roommate is at fault more than the other in this situation.

John is at fault

Michael is at fault

|-----|

Explain below the reason(s) you marked the “X” where you did on the line above.

Regarding the second roommate video:

How important do you find the following issues faced by the roommates? Please mark your choice with an “X”.

	I find the issue...					
	not at all					very
	important					important
Messiness in general	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Lack of communication	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Disrespect	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Responsibility	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Friends coming over	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Not getting along w/ friends	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Hogging bathroom	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Using others soap/shampoo	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Sharing chores	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Taking out trash	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Pet ownership	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Dog chewing things	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>
Cleaning up after dog	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/>	<input type="text" value="4"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/>

On a scale from 1 to 10, how likely do you think it is that these two roommates will choose to be roommates next semester? Please circle one.

Not at all likely

Very Likely

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Mark an “x” on the line below to show the degree to which you think one roommate is at fault more than the other in this situation.

Jill is at fault

Karen is at fault

|-----|

Explain below the reason(s) you marked the “X” where you did on the line above.

APPENDIX D

Moral Judgment Test

Instruction for the Moral Judgment Test (MJT)

In the following section you are asked to judge two decisions.

The first situation is about which a judge had to make, the second about the decision of two workers.

Please, read the story carefully and then give your judgment on a scale from -3 to +3 whether you think the decision was wrong or right.

Thereafter, you will find arguments in favor and against the decision in each story.

Mark on the scale whether you accept or reject the argument.

Thank you very much!

1. Judge Steinberg

The secret service of a country in Europe has evidence that a terrorist group is planning a bomb attack on a train for the next day. They intend to kill two hundred people. The group is known for its cruelty and uncompromising policy. The secret service gets hold of a woman who is considered to be one of the top-leaders of the terrorist group. There is evidence that the woman participated in the planning of that attack. The police believe they could prevent the attack if they could make the woman speak. They interview the woman for quite sometime. However, the woman totally refuses to cooperate. The secret service fears that the woman would not speak before it was too late to prevent the attack. Therefore, they ask the investigating judge to allow them to use torture techniques to make the woman speak about the plans of her group. In this country, torture is not allowed by law. In spite of this, the judge gives permission to torture in order to prevent the bomb attack and to save the lives of many people.

Would you think Judge Steinberg's decision was wrong or right? I think it was ...

Wrong Right

-3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3

The following arguments have been given in favor and against Judge Steinberg's decision. How do you think about them?

One has argued *in favor* of Judge Steinberg' decision that . . .

the judge is right because this would be the best way to prevent future attacks.

I reject this completely I accept this completely

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

in such an extreme situation, the rights of the victims weigh more than the rights of the suspect.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

the judge has authority to decide and does not need to worry about future consequences

I reject this
completely

I accept this
completely

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

the judge must do what his conscience says. Saving victims' lives justifies an exception to the moral obligation of respecting life in general.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

the judge, as a member of justice, has the obligation of saving lives.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

most of his colleagues would probably have done the same. The judge would have the approval of his peers.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

One has argued *against* Judge Steinberg's decision that ...

torture disrespects the suspect's rights and everybody has the same rights.

I reject this
completely

I accept this
completely

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

every judge must respect the law, and in that country torture is against the law.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

the judge should not have permitted the torture because he might get punished by his superiors

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

he acted against his peers convictions and could loose their respect.

I reject this
completely

I accept this
completely

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

the judge is wrong because the human life is of the highest moral value.
The human life can not be used as a means to an end.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

by acting in this way, the judge was risking his own reputation.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

2. Workers' Dilemma

Due to some seemingly unfounded dismissals, some factory workers suspect the managers of eavesdropping on their employees through an intercom and using this information against them. The managers officially and emphatically deny this accusation. The union declares that it will only take steps against the company when proof has been found that confirms these suspicions. Two workers then break into the administrative offices and take tapes and written transcripts that prove the allegation of eavesdropping.

Would you disagree or agree with the workers' behavior?

I strongly disagree

I strongly agree

-3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3

The following arguments have been given in favor and against the workers' behavior. How do you think about them?

— One has argued *in favor* of the workers' behavior and that the workers' were correct in acting the way they did . . .

because they didn't cause much damage to the company.

I reject this completely

I accept this completely

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

because due to the company's disregard for the law, the means used by the two workers were permissible to restore law and order.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

because most of the workers would approve of their deed and many of them would be happy about it.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

because trust between people and individual dignity count more than the firm's internal regulations

I reject this completely

I accept this completely

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

because the company had committed an injustice first, the two workers were justified in breaking into the offices.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

because the two workers saw no legal means of revealing the company's misuse of confidence, and therefore chose what they considered the lesser evil.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

One has argued against the workers' behavior and that the workers' were incorrect in acting the way they did . . .

because we would endanger law and order in society if everyone acted as the two workers did.

I reject this completely

I accept this completely

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

because one must not violate such a basic right as the right of property ownership and take the law into one's own hands, unless some universal moral principle justifies doing so.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

because risking dismissal from the company on behalf of other people is unwise.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

because the two should have run through the legal channels at their disposal and not committed a serious violation of the law.

I reject this completely

I accept this completely

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

because one doesn't steal and commit burglary if one wants to be considered a decent and honest person.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

because the dismissals of the other employees did not affect them and thus they had no reason to steal the transcripts.

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4

APPENDIX E

Big Five Inventory (BFI)

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

	Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree strongly
	1	2	3	4	5

I see Myself as Someone Who...

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>___ 1. Is talkative</p> <p>___ 2. Tends to find fault with others</p> <p>___ 3. Does a thorough job</p> <p>___ 4. Is depressed, blue</p> <p>___ 5. Is original, comes up with new ideas</p> <p>___ 6. Is reserved</p> <p>___ 7. Is helpful and unselfish with others</p> <p>___ 8. Can be somewhat careless</p> <p>___ 9. Is relaxed, handles stress well</p> <p>___ 10. Is curious about many different things</p> <p>___ 11. Is full of energy</p> <p>___ 12. Starts quarrels with others</p> <p>___ 13. Is a reliable worker</p> <p>___ 14. Can be tense</p> <p>___ 15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker</p> <p>___ 16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm</p> <p>___ 17. Has a forgiving nature</p> <p>___ 18. Tends to be disorganized</p> <p>___ 19. Worries a lot</p> <p>___ 20. Has an active imagination</p> <p>___ 21. Tends to be quiet</p> <p>___ 22. Is generally trusting</p> | <p>___ 23. Tends to be lazy</p> <p>___ 24. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset</p> <p>___ 25. Is inventive</p> <p>___ 26. Has an assertive personality</p> <p>___ 27. Can be cold and aloof</p> <p>___ 28. Perseveres until the task is finished</p> <p>___ 29. Can be moody</p> <p>___ 30. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences</p> <p>___ 31. Is sometimes shy, inhibited</p> <p>___ 32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone</p> <p>___ 33. Does things efficiently</p> <p>___ 34. Remains calm in tense situations</p> <p>___ 35. Prefers work that is routine</p> <p>___ 36. Is outgoing, sociable</p> <p>___ 37. Is sometimes rude to others</p> <p>___ 38. Makes plans and follows through with them</p> <p>___ 39. Gets nervous easily</p> <p>___ 40. Likes to reflect, play with ideas</p> <p>___ 41. Has few artistic interests</p> <p>___ 42. Likes to cooperate with others</p> <p>___ 43. Is easily distracted</p> <p>___ 44. Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature</p> |
|---|--|

Please check: Did you write a number in front of each statement?

BFI scale scoring (“R” denotes reverse-scored items):
Extraversion: 1, 6R, 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, 36
Agreeableness: 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, 42
Conscientiousness: 3, 8R, 13, 18R, 23R, 28, 33, 38, 43R
Neuroticism: 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, 39
Openness: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, 44

Note. Copyright 1991 by Oliver P. John.

APPENDIX F

Recruiting Script

Recruiting Talk

My name is _____ and I am here to tell you about some studies that we are conducting and see if you are interested in volunteering for these studies. You have the opportunity to see how sociologists conduct experimental studies and you will be paid for your participation. Now, I can't tell you right now exactly what study you would be in and exactly how much you will be paid because we are recruiting for several different studies right now. But I can tell you *about* how much these studies would be paying. Some of the studies involve working with people and making different investment decisions. These studies pay from about \$5 to about \$40. Other studies (insert information that pertains to other studies we might recruit for). Examples of the studies include examining how face-to-face communication differs from communication over the computer.

I will hand out these sign up sheets which ask for your name, telephone number and the times you find most convenient for participating in the studies. If you decide to sign up, we will use these sheets and call you up and then schedule you. At the time we talk, we can tell you more about the specifics of the study, the time etc. And then, at that time, you can say yes, no or schedule some other time.

Now, you may have heard some stories about experiments that actually caused people to have negative experiences. There is a very famous study, for example, the Milgram study in which people thought that they were shocking other people to the point of hurting them---they really weren't, but they thought that they were. This experiment is considered to have ethical problems because people suffered psychological trauma just from being in the study. Well, I want to assure you that nothing like this is going on in our studies. Partly because of some problems in experiments, new federal guidelines were developed for all studies that used human subjects. Here at A&M, all our studies go through the human subjects board (called the IRB). Importantly, if you should feel uncomfortable while in ANY study, you should just leave.

Another thing that I want to make sure you understand is that you are not obligated in any way to sign up. Your participation has nothing to do with this class. Dr. (fill in professor's name) won't know if you come or don't come. There is no extra credit for participation. So, just because I show up here in your class, don't feel obligated to sign up. If you are interested and would like to earn some money, fill out the form and pass it in to me. If you are not interested, simply hand in the blank form.

I appreciate your help. Any other questions?

APPENDIX G

Scheduling Script

Hello. This is _____. I am scheduling for some studies you volunteered for. You were probably recruited in one of your classes by Dr. Sell or Tony Love for studies that pay for participation. I am calling to schedule one of those studies now. This study involves making decisions with others in your group. The time and the pay for the studies vary. Ordinarily, the study can take between half an hour and an hour and half. And the pay for the participation can vary from \$5 to \$30.

We run our studies in the Academic building room 305. Do you know where the Academic Building is? (give directions if they don't know). I have openings for participation at _____ and _____. Are any of those times good for you?

{if yes, person is scheduled}

{if no, the person is asked if there is a better time for them}

Are you willing and able to ask a friend to come with you to participate in the study?

(if yes) That would be great; please ask them to come with you.

{make note of answer. Specific name of friend not needed at this time.}

Thank you very much for your participation. Again, we will see you at _____(time) in ACAD 305.

APPENDIX H

Consent Form

Roommate Arbitration Exercise

You have been asked to participate in a study concerning the ways in which people solve problems. You were selected to be a possible participant because you volunteered your contact information when one of our researchers spoke to your class earlier this semester. The study will involve approximately 120 people and will be conducted in rooms located in the Academic Building. The purpose of this study is to examine the types of suggestions people offer when trying to resolve conflicts.

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked for your suggestions regarding issues between roommates. You will also be asked to judge the decisions of actors in fictional scenarios. Your suggestions will be oral and videotaped; your judgments of the fictional scenarios will be written. This study will take approximately one hour. Other than the financial compensation, there are no direct risks or benefits to being a participant in this study. You do not have to answer any questions that make you feel uncomfortable.

On average, the study will take about an hour. For participating, you will receive \$15 and a possible bonus of up to \$5. We will explain the bonus later. If you are uncomfortable during the study you may stop at any time. If you stop, you will earn the amount up to the time you stop.

This study is confidential. Although your first name will be used in the videotaping, no identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Only the researchers associated with this study will have access to the video tapes and your written judgments. The videotapes are retained for 5 years and then will be destroyed. If you are uncomfortable with the videotaping process, you can ask the researcher to erase the tape. The researcher will then erase the tape.

This study is not associated with any class at Texas A&M University. There will be no class credit involved, and your participation in this study will not affect your grades now or in any future classes at Texas A&M University.

This research study has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board – Human Subjects in Research, Texas A&M University. For research-related problems or questions regarding subjects' rights, you can contact the Institutional Review Board through Ms. Melissa McIlhaney, IRB Program Coordinator, Office of Research Compliance, (979)458-4067, mcilhaney@tamu.edu.

By signing this document, you certify that you have read and understand the explanation provided to you. You certify that you have had all of your questions answered to your satisfaction, and that you voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

You have received a copy of this consent form for your records.

Signature of Subject

Date

Signature of Researcher

If you have any further questions, feel free to contact Tony Love or Dr. Jane Sell, Sociology Department, TAMU, 845-6120.

APPENDIX I**Notes Page**

Your First Name:

Your Study Partner's First Name:

Username:

Password:

Notes:

APPENDIX J

Debriefing

Behavioral Measure of Role-taking—Debriefing.

Thank you for participating in our study today. We will be paying you the \$15 for your participation and a \$5 bonus for each of you.

The study today concerns the ability of individuals to predict the behavior of others. Although we told you that this study concerned your innovative suggestions for conflict resolution and that your suggestions would be implemented by the roommates, we were really concerned with your ability to predict your study partner's behavior and judgments. The "roommates" were actually actors, and your suggestions will not be given to any actual roommates.

There are two different conditions or circumstances that we will be comparing in this study. Some people are assigned their friend as their study partner; some people are required to pair up with someone they have never met. We do this so that we can compare the two groups and determine whether knowing someone well truly affects an individual's ability to predict an other's behavior.

There are studies that show that people often think that they can accurately predict the behavior of another person, but there are not studies that try to specifically analyze whether individuals can truly predict the actual behavior of another person. This is the reason for the videotaping of your suggestions.

One thing I would like to ask you is that you not talk about the specifics of the study to your friends. We will be running experiments for the next couple of months, and it is very important that people do not know the specifics of the study because people sometimes act differently when they know about the study. **THIS IS VERY IMPORTANT.**

How do you feel now that you know your suggestions will not be used and that the roommates are actually actors?

Do you have any questions?

Thank you again for your time.

VITA

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